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SH Wave Scattering From a Sinusoidal Grating

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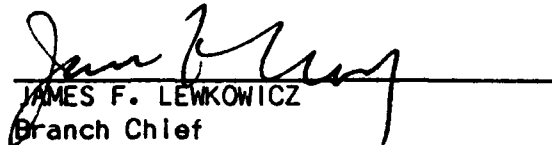
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This technical report has been reviewed and is approved for publication.


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19. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse if necessary and identify by block number) → A good way to test discrete wavenumber modeling techniques is to model scattering from a sinusoidal free surface, while varying the maximum slope of the interface. Four discrete wavenumber methods, the Aki-Larner, the Waterman, the Waterman-Fourier, and the Campillo-Bouchon, are evaluated by testing for energy conservation and comparing displacement. Contrary to the claim of some authors (Varadan et al. 1987), the Waterman-Fourier shows no advantage over the Aki-Larner method for steep slopes. With the novel use of an FFT to calculate the scattering matrix, the Waterman-Fourier method is as fast as Aki-Larner. The Campillo-Bouchon method is superior to the other methods in its ability to handle steep slopes, but it requires more wavenumber samples and is an order of magnitude slower. <i>Handwritten notes:</i> Aki-Larner, Waterman, Waterman-Fourier, Campillo-Bouchon					
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INTRODUCTION

Wave scattering from a sinusoidal grating has been a problem of considerable interest in a number of disciplines. It is of interest in seismology for modeling the affects of topography on seismic wave propagation. Many of the discrete wavenumber modeling techniques that have been developed for sinusoidal gratings are also applicable to interfaces of arbitrary shape.

In this paper we will compare results and numerical properties of four different discrete wavenumber modeling techniques. All of the comparisons are done for the simple problem of a sinusoidal free surface grating with a vertically traveling plane wave incident from below (Figure 1). Particle motion is parallel to the strike of the structure (SH waves). The modeling methods we will examine are the Aki-Larner method (1970), the Waterman method (1975), the Waterman-Fourier method (Varaden, et al. 1987), and the Campillo-Bouchon method (1987). We will refer to these methods as AL, WR, WF, and CB, respectively. All of these techniques are applicable to interfaces of arbitrary shape and can in principle be generalized, to fully elastic, multi-layer, and 3-D models.

A solution to the sinusoidal grating problem was proposed by Payleigh (1907). He expanded the wavefield in terms of up and down going plane waves and solved for the coefficients by satisfying the stress free boundary

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condition at a number of points along the surface. AL is essentially an overdetermined, least squares version of the Rayleigh method, formulated in the wavenumber domain. However, since Lippmann (1953) questioned the expansion used in the Rayleigh method, the so called "Rayleigh ansatz", the history of this modeling approach has been shrouded in controversy. Lippmann suggested that the Rayleigh expansion is satisfactory below a plane bounding the topography, but is unsatisfactory inside the peaks (Figure 2).

Petit and Cadilhac (1966) proved that the Rayleigh ansatz could not be valid if the ratio of the amplitude to the wavelength of the sinusoid (h/L) is greater than 0.072. Millar (1971) proved that the Rayleigh ansatz is in fact valid if h/L is less than 0.072. Other authors have shown, e.g. Wirgin (1980) and Jiracek (1973), that the Rayleigh ansatz is usable for slopes greater than the Millar limit. There continues to be heated debate over this issue. (See Wirgin 1986, and Lakhtakia et al., 1986.)

In addition to the controversy over the validity of the Rayleigh ansatz, there has been discussion as to whether the Waterman method (WR) uses the ansatz. Basically this method, also known as the T-matrix method, makes use of the Helmholtz formula to generalize the boundary conditions. Waterman originally claimed that his approach was not dependent on the ansatz. Today, it is generally accepted that WR uses the ansatz and is therefore limited by the slope of the interface (Lakhtakia et al., 1985b).

WF is an alternative formulation of the Waterman method that uses the expansion proposed by Masel et al. (1975) instead of the Rayleigh *ansatz*. In principle, it is not limited by the slope of the interface.

The Campillo and Bouchon method (CB) resembles the aforementioned techniques in some ways, and it is clearly independent of the Rayleigh *ansatz*. CB is a collocation method similar to AL, but it parameterizes the reflected wavefield in terms of line (or point) sources distributed along the interface.

We will compare and evaluate the four techniques as they apply to the sinusoidal free surface, SH wave problem. In particular we will map the region of energy conservation with respect to slope (h/L), frequency ($k \cdot L$), and N (the number of plane waves used in the expansion). We will also examine the wavefield, at the interface and below the lower bounding plane of the topography.

METHODS

In this section a unified description of the four methods will be given in order to define the common features. All of them operate on time harmonic solutions to the wavefields, and the time dependence, $\exp(i\omega t)$, is suppressed. In all four methods the model is assumed to be periodic in the x-direction, leading to a discrete plane wave representation of the wavefield. The x and z wavenumber components are:

$$k_n = 2\pi n/L \quad (1)$$

and
$$\gamma_n = (\omega^2/\beta^2 - k_n^2)^{1/2} \quad (2)$$

where

$$\beta = (\mu/\rho)^{1/2} = \text{shear wave velocity.} \quad (3)$$

Effects of adjacent periods can be suppressed by adding a small imaginary component to ω which can be defined in terms of a realistic Q parameter. Each of the methods can be stated in matrix form.

For AL, the matrix representation is,

$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{G} \mathbf{r} \quad (4)$$

where

r_n = the coefficients in the Rayleigh expansion for the reflected waves, i.e.,

$$U_R = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} r_n e^{i(k_n x + \gamma_n z)} \quad z \geq \xi(x) \quad (5)$$

a_m = the Fourier transform of the traction on the interface surface due to the incident field. For a vertically traveling plane wave of unit amplitude,

$$a_m = i\mu\gamma_0/L \int_0^L n_z e^{i\gamma_0\xi(x)} e^{-k_m x} dx. \quad (6)$$

And

$$G_{mn} = -i\mu/L \int_0^L \hat{n} \cdot k e^{i(k_n - k_m)x} e^{i\gamma_n\xi(x)} dx. \quad (7)$$

Truncation of the series (5) and discretization of integrals (6) and (7) leads to a least squares solution,

$$\left. \begin{matrix} n \\ m \end{matrix} \right\} = -M, \dots, 0, \dots, +M \quad (8)$$

where

$$N = 2M + 1. \quad (9)$$

The solution to (4) minimizes the normal stress at the surface sample points in a least squares sense. The vector \mathbf{a} and columns of the matrix \mathbf{G} can be calculated using the fast Fourier transform (FFT). In this study we use an FFT of length 128 and solve for a vector \mathbf{r} of length N . With $N < 128$, the problem is overdetermined.

The Waterman method derives from the Helmholtz formula equations (10 and 11), after plane wave expansions have been substituted for the Green's functions and the wavefields.

Equation 10 represents Huygen's principle, and equation 11 is the extended boundary condition. (Waterman 1975)

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} U_R(z \geq \xi) \\ U_I(z < \xi) \end{array} \right\} = 1/4i \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \hat{n} \cdot [U^+ \nabla g - g \nabla U^+] dx \quad (10)$$

$$(11)$$

where

g = the free space Green's function,

and

U^+ = the wavefield on the interface.

Note that $\hat{n} \cdot \nabla U^+ = 0$ on a free surface.

Modeling using WR or WF requires that we solve the following coupled set of matrix equations.

$$r = Q^+ \alpha \quad (12)$$

$$b = Q^- \alpha \quad (13)$$

where

r_n = the coefficients of the reflected wavefield as
in AL, except the domain is limited to $z > h$,

b_n = the coefficients of the incident wavefield, i.e.,

$$b_n = \begin{cases} 1 & n = 0 \\ 0 & n \neq 0 \end{cases} \quad (14)$$

and

α_m = the coefficients of the surface field
expansion.

For WR,

$$U^+ = \sum_{m=-M}^{+M} \alpha_m e^{i(k_m x - \gamma_m \xi(x))} \quad (15)$$

$$Q_{nm}^{\pm} = i/kL \int_0^L (\gamma_m - k_m n_x / n_z) e^{i(k_m x \pm \gamma_n n)} e^{i(k_n x - \gamma_m \xi)} dx \quad (16)$$

and for WF,

$$U^+ = \sum_{m=-M}^{+M} \alpha_m e^{ik_m x} \quad (17)$$

$$Q_{nm}^{\pm} = i/kL \int_0^L (\gamma_m - k_m n_x / n_z) e^{i(k_m x \pm \gamma_n \xi)} e^{ik_n x} dx \quad (18)$$

Equations 12 and 13 correspond to equations 16 and 18, respectively, with an implied truncation length of $2M+1$ wavenumber samples. Equation 15 is equivalent to the Rayleigh ansatz expansion, albeit expressed in terms of upgoing instead of downgoing waves. If we use the alternative surface field expansion proposed by Masel et al. (1975), the matrix equations represent the Waterman Fourier method (WF).

It is interesting to note that although they are used in a completely different context, the Q^- matrix for WF is nearly identical to the transpose of the G matrix used in AL. The two integral expressions are the same except for a factor (n_z) in the integrand. This suggests that the elements of the Q matrix can be generated a row at a time using an FFT. For a sinusoidal interface, the integral (18) simplifies to a Bessel function. However, in this study we will calculate the Q matrices using FFT's, as we would for

an interface of arbitrary shape. A sample length of 128 is used, the same as with AL.

A normalization scheme can be applied to WR or WF to improve stability. The details of this scheme are in Appendix I.

The CB method is a collocation method like AL. Unlike the other methods, however, the coefficient vector is in the space domain rather than the horizontal wavenumber domain. The wavefield is expanded in a series of line sources equally distributed in x along the interface:

$$x_n = (n-1) L/N. \quad (19)$$

For CB the matrix representation is

$$\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{f} \quad (20)$$

where

c_n = the traction on the interface due to the incident field, i.e.,

$$c_n = i \mu n_z \gamma_0 e^{i \gamma_0 \xi(x_n)} \quad (21)$$

f_m = the line source coefficients, i.e.,

$$U_R = 1/(2i\mu L) \sum_{m=-M}^{+M} f_m \sum_{p=-M}^{+M} (1/\gamma_p) e^{i \gamma_p |z - \xi_m|} e^{i k_p (x - x_m)} \quad (22)$$

and

$$B_{nm} = 1/(2i\mu) \sum_{p=-M}^{+M} (\hat{n} \cdot \mathbf{k} / \gamma_p) e^{i\gamma_p |z_n - z_m|} e^{ik_p(x_n - x_m)} \quad (23)$$

The use of the line source expansion (22) replaces the Rayleigh *ansatz* and Masel expansions used in AL and WF, respectively. Equation (20) extinguishes the normal stress at the source points; it is even-determined, with as many equations as there are line sources. We could formulate CB using an overdetermined least squares solution at the cost of an additional loop in the calculation of the matrix elements. This addition would be costly in terms of execution time.

RESULTS

A simple way to evaluate the four techniques is to test for energy conservation. In each numerical experiment we assume that a monochromatic, vertically traveling plane wave of unit amplitude is incident on a sinusoidal free surface. Energy conservation requires that the reflected energy flux equals the incident energy flux, i.e.,

$$\sum_{n=-M}^{+M} |r_n|^2 \frac{\text{Re}(\gamma_n)}{|\gamma_n|} = 1, \quad (24)$$

as used by others (Larner 1970, Lakhtakia et al. 1985a).

The interface slope is described by h/L , the ratio of the amplitude to the period of the sinusoid. The frequency of the incoming energy is described by $k \cdot L$, the normalized frequency. It is also necessary to specify N , the number of coefficients or discrete wavenumbers samples to be used in a particular numerical experiment. The region of energy conservation in the two dimensional $\{N-(k \cdot L)\}$ domain has been mapped for each of the modeling techniques and for various interface slopes.

A number of features in the energy conservation maps are worthy of mention. As the normalized frequency increases, more coefficients are needed to obtain convergence and energy conservation. This is expected

because with increasing frequency more of the coefficients represent propagating waves. The WR, WF, and AL techniques are all limited to a maximum wavenumber beyond which the solution diverges and energy is not conserved. CB does not appear to have such a limit.

For the methods that are wavenumber limited, the maximum number of samples, N_{\max} , depends on frequency and h/L , the slope of the interface. For steep slopes ($h/L \geq 0.15$) there is an upper limit on the frequency for which convergence occurs at any wavenumber. Therefore, when we discuss slope limitations for a particular modeling method we must also specify frequency.

Note that the wavenumber limit is a numerical feature not necessarily related to the Rayleigh ansatz. For example, the WF method which does not invoke the Rayleigh ansatz has an N_{\max} for slopes both above and below the Millar limit of $h/L = 0.072$. Also the WR and AL methods have wavenumber limits for h/L less than 0.072.

Further scrutiny of Figure 3 reveals that N_{\max} is always in the evanescent wave region where coefficient amplitudes increase exponentially with z . Use of these waves in the solution will eventually exceed the precision and wordsize of the computer. The convergence range can of course be extended by increasing the word length and precision.

The most significant feature of the energy conservation maps is that the WF and AL methods have very similar regions

of convergence. For steep slopes, the two methods show convergence up to about the same maximum frequency. For $h/L = 0.1$, AL and WF are nearly the same except WF diverges somewhat more rapidly as N increases. For $h/L = 0.072$, there is a more dramatic difference in the rate of divergence. Nonetheless, these data support the observation made by Wirgin (1980), that regardless of the Rayleigh ansatz, the WF and AL methods are limited to the same maximum slope.

The performance of WR falls short of WF or AL. For gradual slopes, WR has lower N_{\max} values, and for steep slopes WR does not converge at all. It is no surprise that WR would have a lower N_{\max} than WF since Waterman's original surface field expansion introduces an additional exponential factor in the calculation of the Q-matrix elements. (Equation 15 as compared to equation 17.)

Use of the normalization technique described in Appendix I alters the region of convergence for the WR and WF methods. The normalization does not extend the maximum allowable slope, but it does increase N_{\max} , allowing more coefficients to be used, especially at frequencies below the maximum for a particular slope. With the normalization, the region of energy conservation for the WF method and the AL method are nearly identical even at low slopes (Figure 4). The region of convergence for the WR method is also extended by use of the normalization.

The convergence characteristics of the CB method are substantially different from the other three methods. For CB there is apparently no limit due to the exponential factors associated with evanescent waves. The absolute value in the formulation of the CB method ensures that only exponentially decaying factors are in the matrix elements. In general, more wavenumber samples are needed with the CB method to obtain the same accuracy in energy conservation as with the other methods. This may be partially due to the fact that CB is an even-determined collocation method as opposed to AL which is over-determined.

The conservation of energy constraint is one way to evaluate the four modeling techniques. Another such test is the satisfaction of boundary conditions. Unfortunately, for some of the techniques this is neither practical nor possible. As formulated, the CB method is even-determined and the residuals of normal stress are always zero. For the Waterman techniques there is no valid expression for the stress at the interface. The expansion of the Green's function in terms of only upgoing or downgoing waves, yields a reflected wavefield solution that is valid only in the region below the lower bounding plane.

An alternative evaluation for the modeling techniques is to compare the displacements at the interface. It is possible to calculate displacements at the interface with all of the methods, even the Waterman techniques because equations 15 and 17 do apply immediately at the surface.

Although there is no boundary condition for displacements to satisfy, they can be used to test for consistency between the methods. Figure 5 shows surface displacements calculated with each of the modeling techniques for interfaces of low, moderate, and steep slope. In each case an appropriate frequency and number of samples have been chosen, i.e., well within the region of energy conservation.

For small slopes, ($h/L = 0.1$) all four methods agree well in terms of surface displacement. Note that the AL and WR methods agree with the others despite the fact that the slope is beyond Millar's theoretical Rayleigh limit of 0.072.

For the medium and steep slope models, the results are different. We see that the WF and CB methods agree well in terms of displacement on the surface, but WR and AL show marked differences. WR does not satisfy the energy conservation constraint for these parameters, so it is not surprising that the surface displacements are different. For AL the energy conservation constraint is satisfied, but the method fails to yield correct surface displacements for slopes significantly beyond the Rayleigh limit.

It is useful to compare the wavefields not only at the surface, but also below the lower bounding plane of the topography. One way to do this is to look at displacements at the lower bounding plane ($z = h$). Another way is to compare the amplitude spectra of the reflected energy. Figure 6 shows the displacements at $z = h$ for the same slope

and frequency cases for which we examined surface displacements. For $h/L = 0.1$ all four methods agree closely. For the steeper slope, WF, AL and CB agree, but WR fails to give a consistent result. The amplitude spectra in Figure 7 show the same pattern of consistency. For steep slope the spectrum for WR blows up in the evanescent wavenumber range, but the other methods agree reasonably well. (Note the logarithmic scale.)

For slope greater than the Millar limit AL fails to yield surface displacements consistent with the other methods, but it appears to give the correct result below the lower bounding plane.

COMPUTATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

In general, the CB method requires more wavenumber samples to converge and is slower for a given N , than the other methods. This is unfortunate, since it performs well over a broader range of slope and frequency parameters.

Figure 8 shows the computation time for each of the methods on the CONVEX C1 supercomputer using single precision arithmetic. For $N > 40$ the CPU time required for CB is approximately an order of magnitude greater than for AL or WF.

Each algorithm consists of two labor intensive parts, creating the $N \times N$ matrix and solving the system. The AL, WR, and WF algorithms each require the execution of three nested loops to create the matrix. Two of these loops can be vectorized by the CONVEX fortran compiler. The additional time required for CB is due to an additional loop implied by equation 22 as compared to equation 5 for AL and equations 15 and 17 for WR and WF. For each of the methods, the LINPACK Gaussian elimination routine CGECO, optimized for the CONVEX, is used to solve the system. A conjugate gradient linear equation solver was tried, but proved to be slower than CGECO.

In Figure 8 we see the dramatic improvement in speed obtained by using an FFT in conjunction with the Waterman Fourier method.

SUMMARY

We have presented evidence that the AL, WR, WF, and CB methods are useable for slopes greater than the theoretical limit established by Millar for the Rayleigh ansatz. For a limited class of problems, (SH waves normally incident on a sinusoidal free surface), we have determined the maximum slope and frequency that each method can handle. This has been accomplished by mapping the region in slope/frequency space where the various methods converge and satisfy the energy conservation requirement. The fact that the resulting wavefields are consistent between methods indicates that the convergent solutions are indeed valid.

Of the four methods studied, it is clear that CB is the most stable and converges over the broadest range of slopes and frequencies. The AL and WF methods have convergence properties very similar to one another supporting the conclusion of Wirgin (1980) that neither is superior for steep slopes. We see that for steep slopes, AL gives erroneous results for displacement on the interface but gives valid displacements (consistent with WF and CB) beyond the topography. WR is the least stable of the four methods and converges only for low slopes.

AL possesses a potential advantage over WF for multi-layer problems if an interface is within the topography of an adjacent interface. This advantage exists only for low slopes where the Rayleigh expansion is valid both inside and

outside the bounding plane of the topography, i.e. for $h/L < 0.072$. The Waterman methods do not yield solutions to the wavefield inside the topography.

We have introduced a normalization technique that improves the stability of WR and WF. This modification allows more wavenumber samples to be used in the calculations, but it does not significantly extend the slope/frequency limits of those methods.

In terms of execution time, the AL and WF methods are fastest. Using an FFT to calculate each row of the matrix in WF is faster than computing N individual integrals or Bessel functions. For nonsinusoidal interfaces the improvement in speed will be most dramatic.

The CB method, while it is the most stable, is also the slowest. It has an additional loop in the calculation of the matrix elements and requires more wavenumber samples to achieve convergence.

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FIGURE 1 Schematic of the numerical experiments. U_I and U_R are the incident and reflected wavefields. Below the interface the shear modulus and density are μ and ρ respectively.

FIGURE 2 The "Rayleigh ansatz" expands the reflected wavefield below the interface as the sum of downgoing plane waves. Lippmann pointed out that the ansatz was incapable of representing upgoing reflected energy in the region between the interface and the plane that bounds the topography.

FIGURE 3 Energy conservation as a function of frequency and number of coefficients. Asterices represent reflected energy flux within 1% of incident flux. Plus signs represent 1-5% error. Each symbol corresponds to a separate numerical experiment. Each frame corresponds to a particular technique and slope.

FIGURE 4 Improvement in convergence due to normalization.

FIGURE 5 Displacement on the interface. Each frame corresponds to a separate numerical experiment. The AL method gives anomalous results despite satisfying energy conservation.

FIGURE 6 Displacement on the lower plane bounding the topography ($z=h$), using the same experimental parameters as in Figure 5. The AL method agrees with WF and CB.

FIGURE 7 Wavenumber spectrum of reflected energy at $z=h$, using the same experimental parameters as in Figures 4 & 5.

FIGURE 8 Computation time on the Convex C1 supercomputer as a function of N , the number of coefficients.

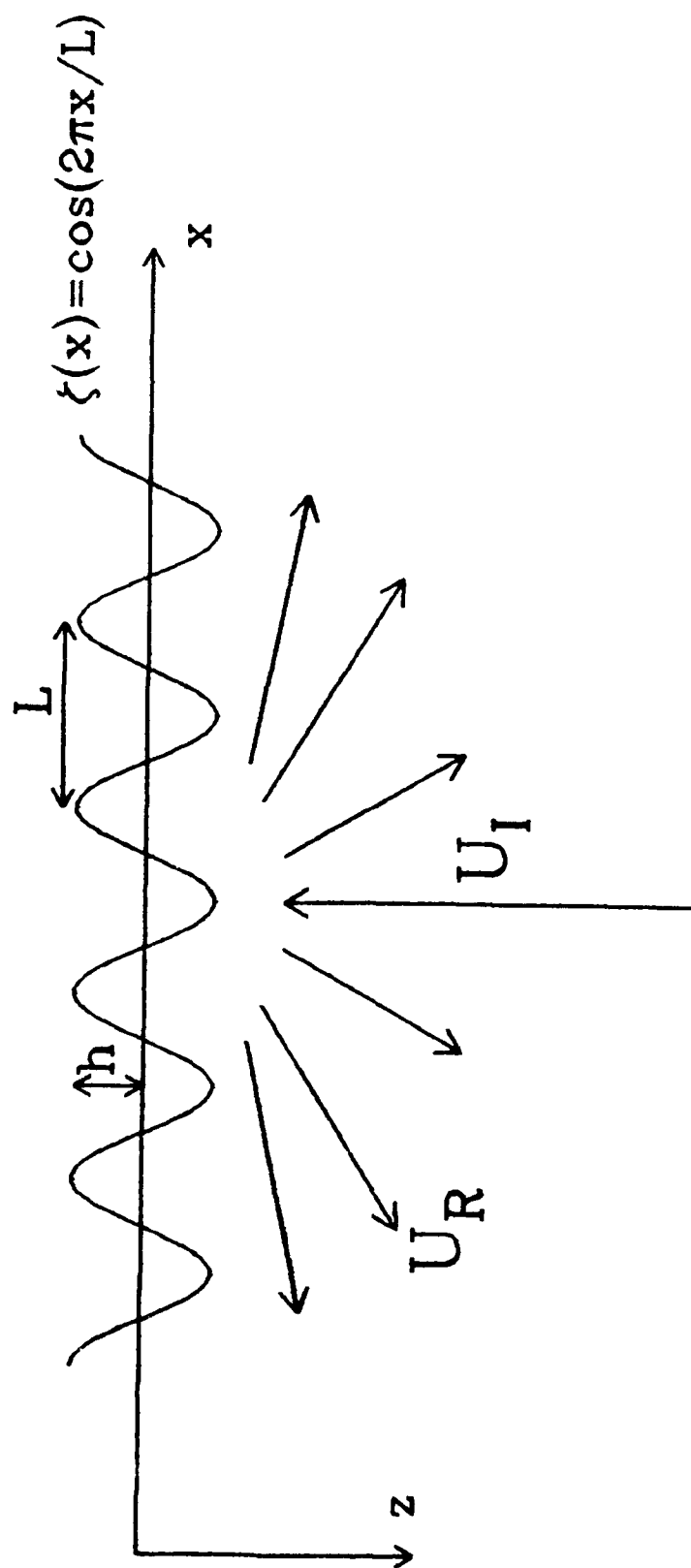


Figure 1

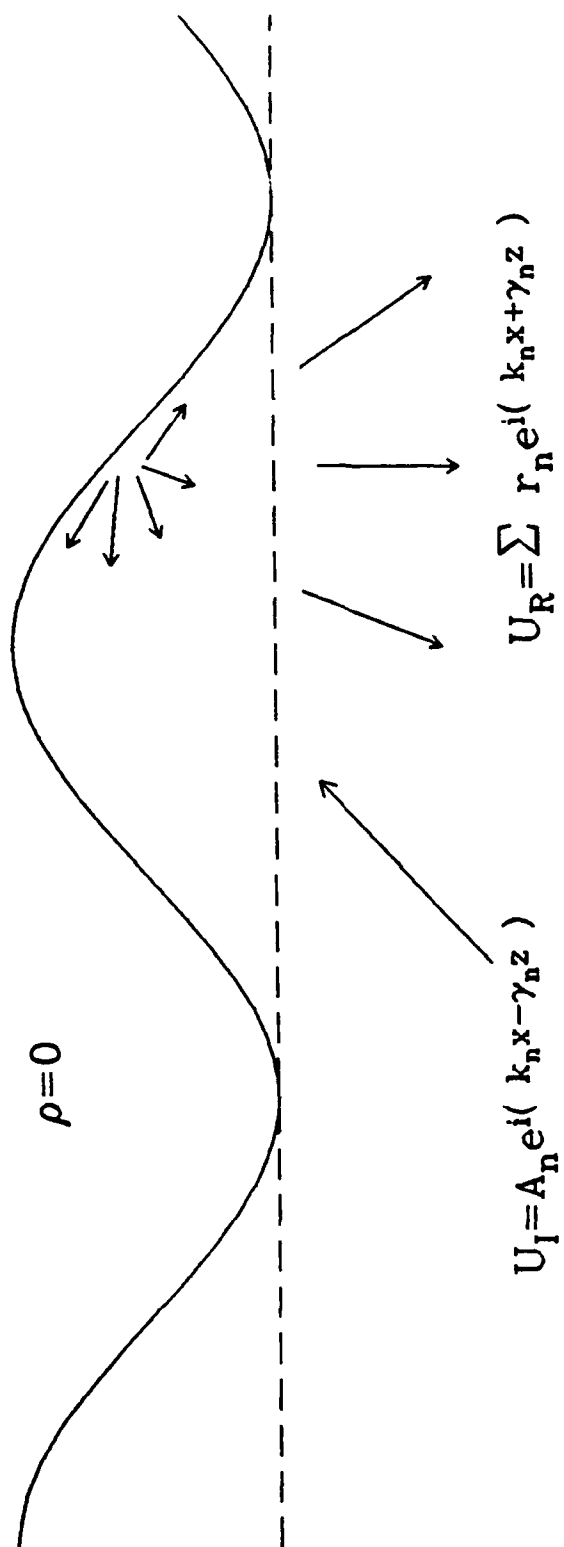


Figure 2

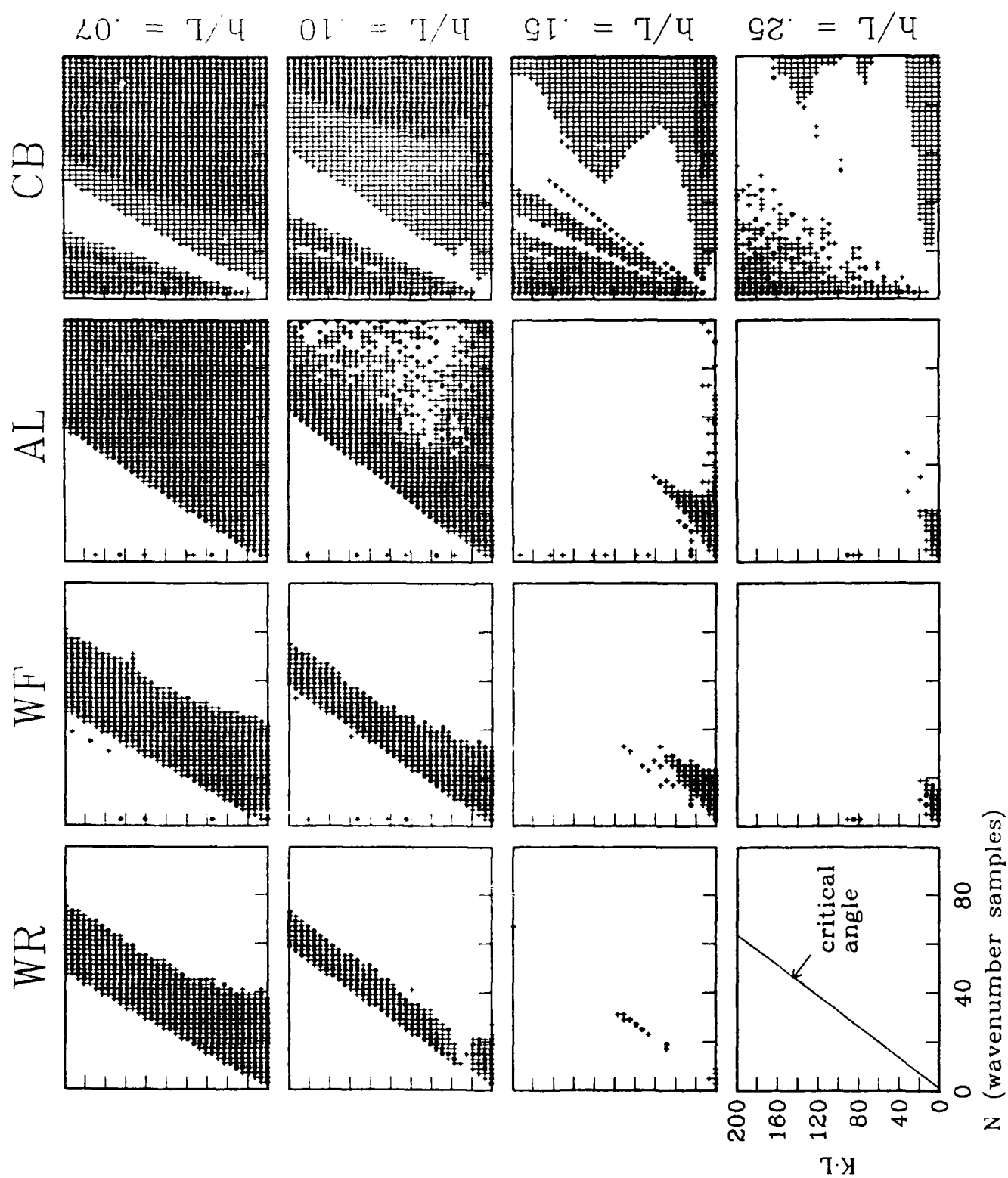


Figure 3

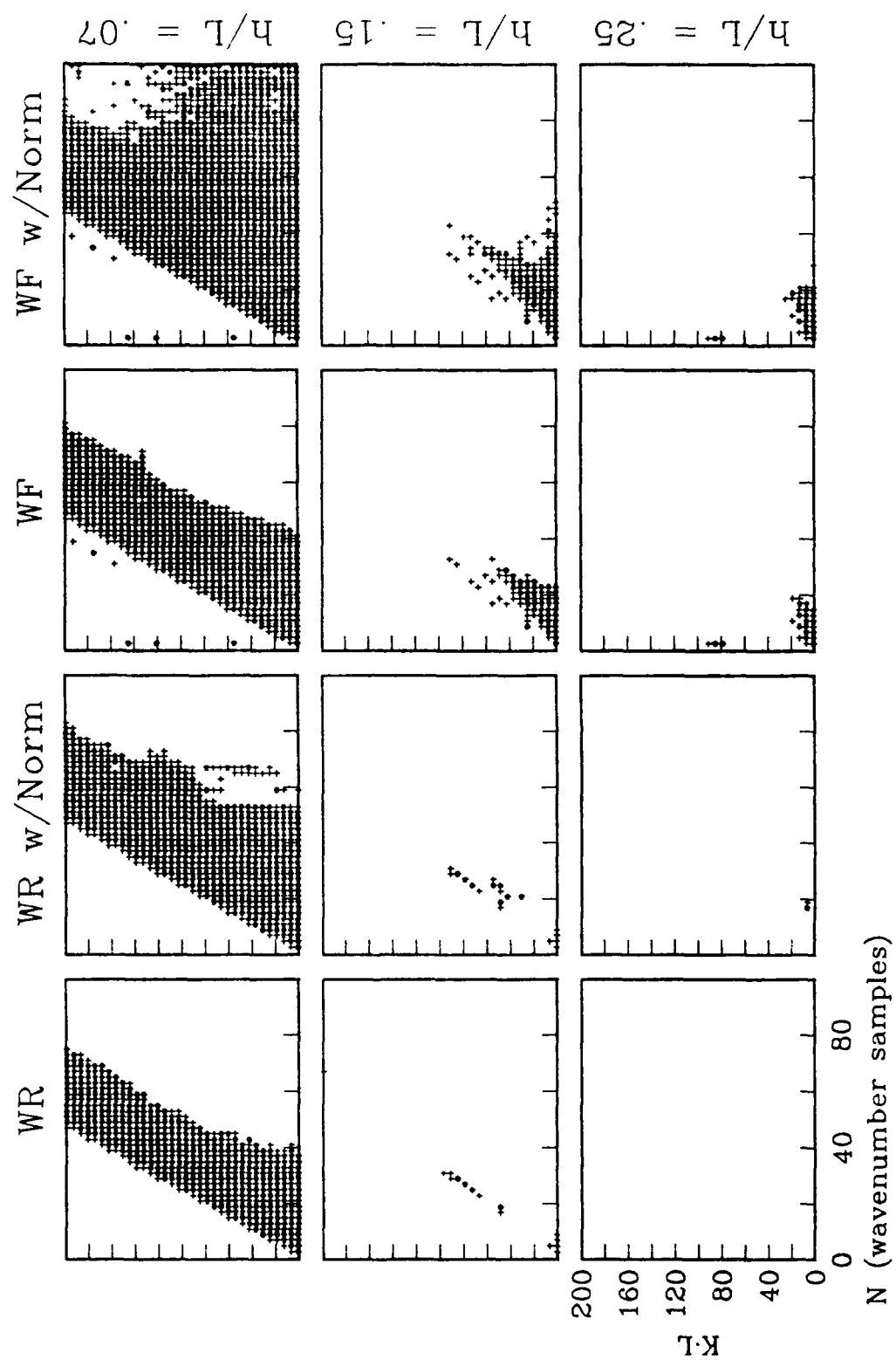


Figure 4

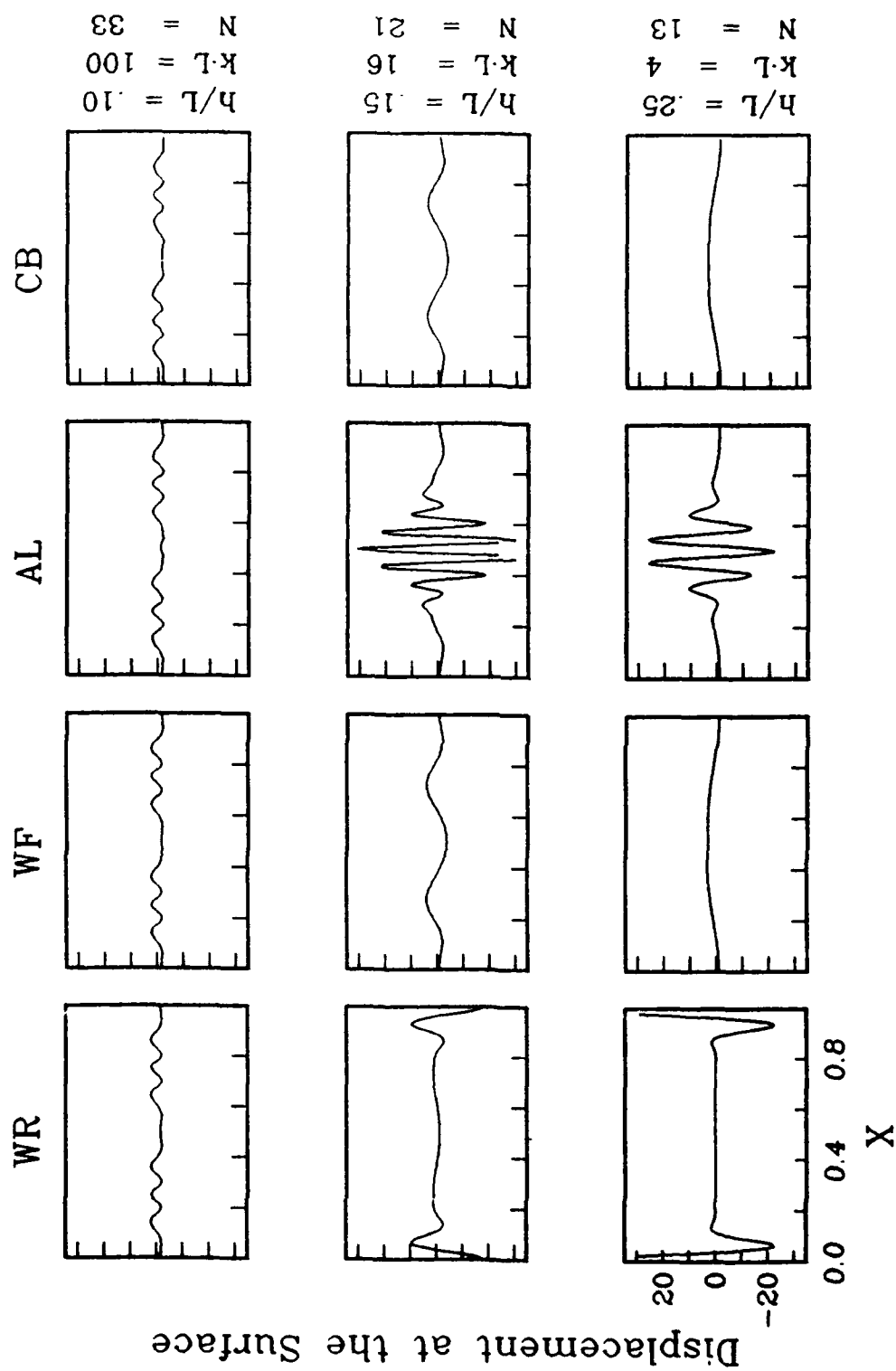


Figure 5

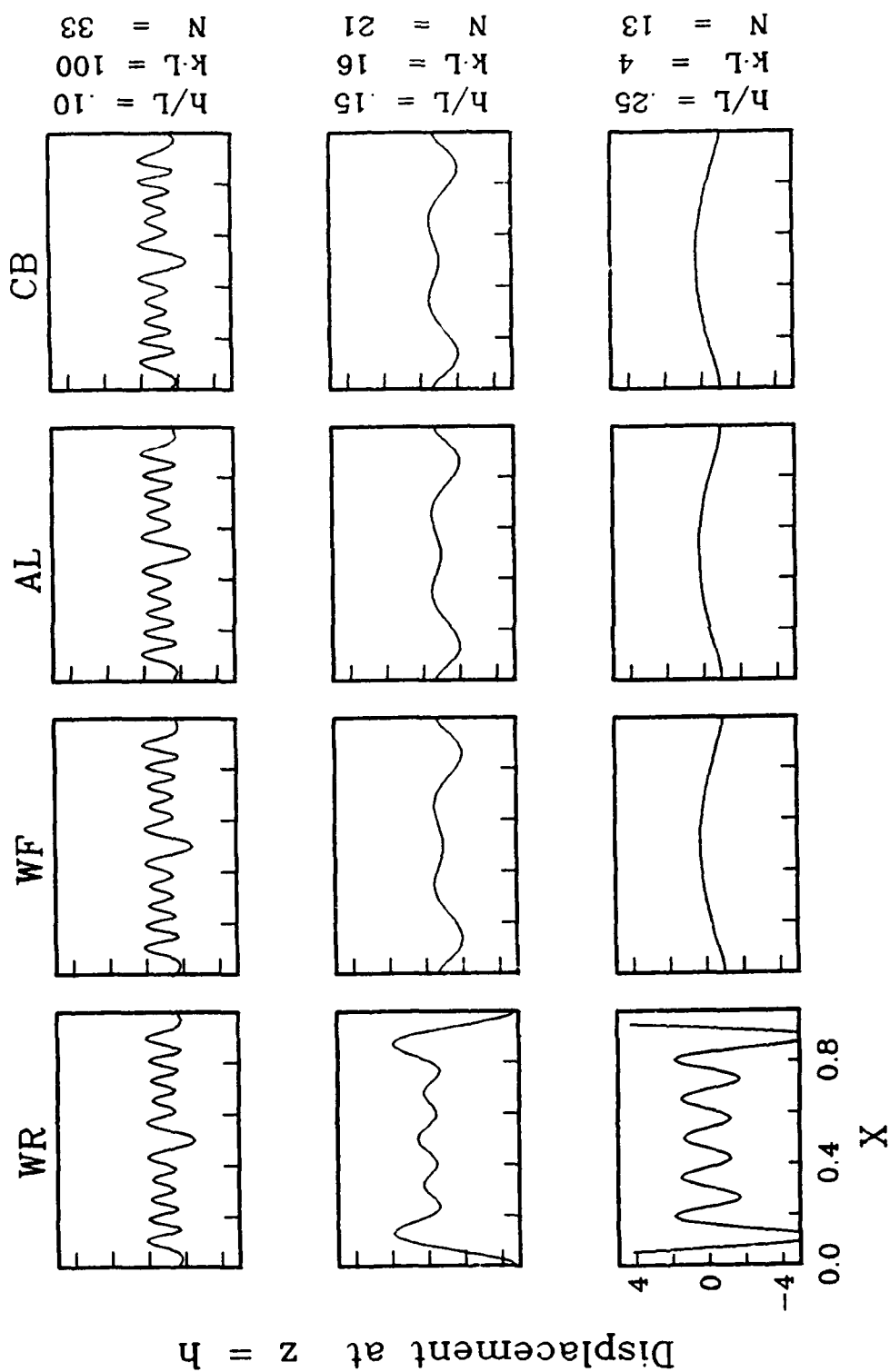


Figure 6

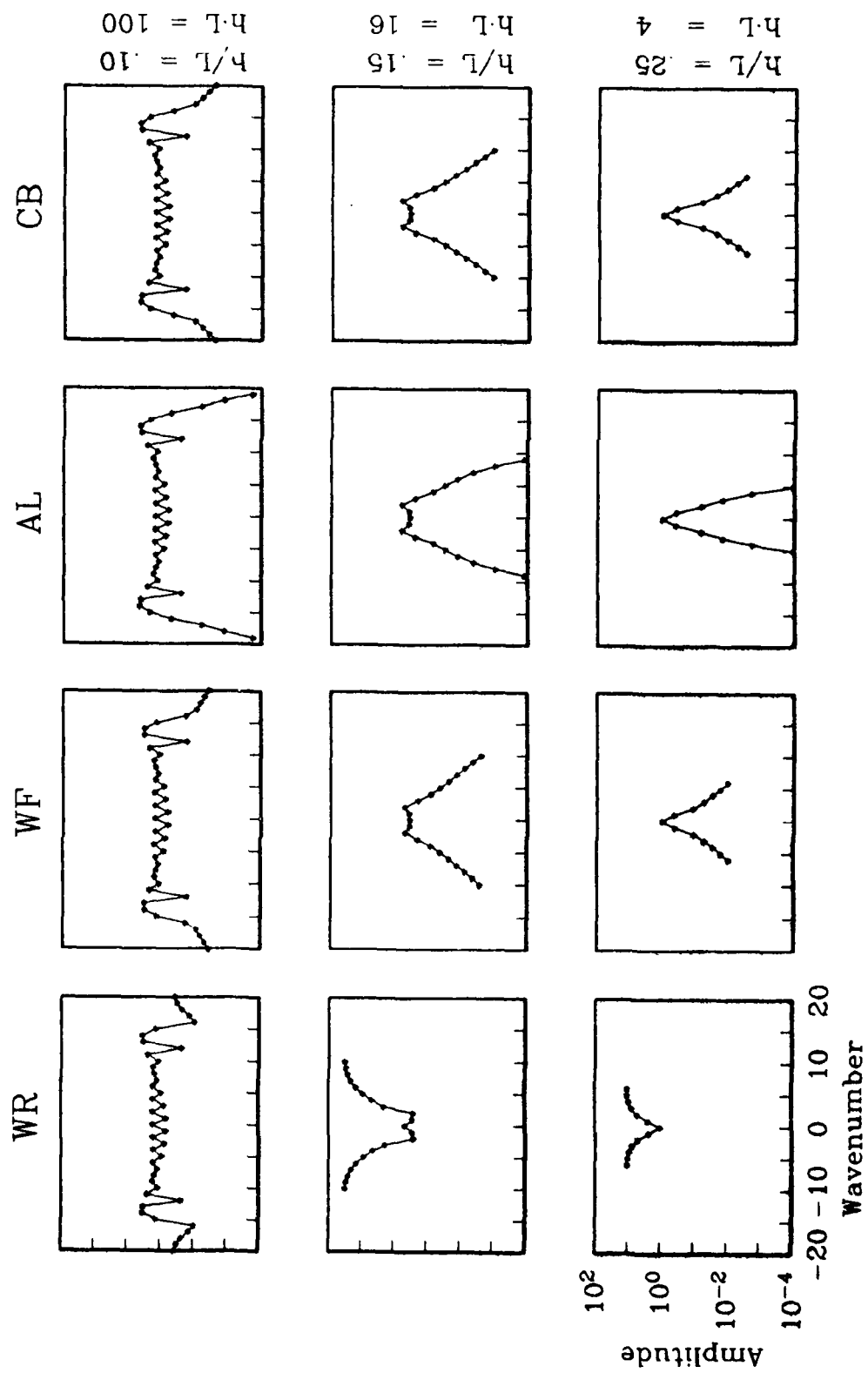


Figure 7

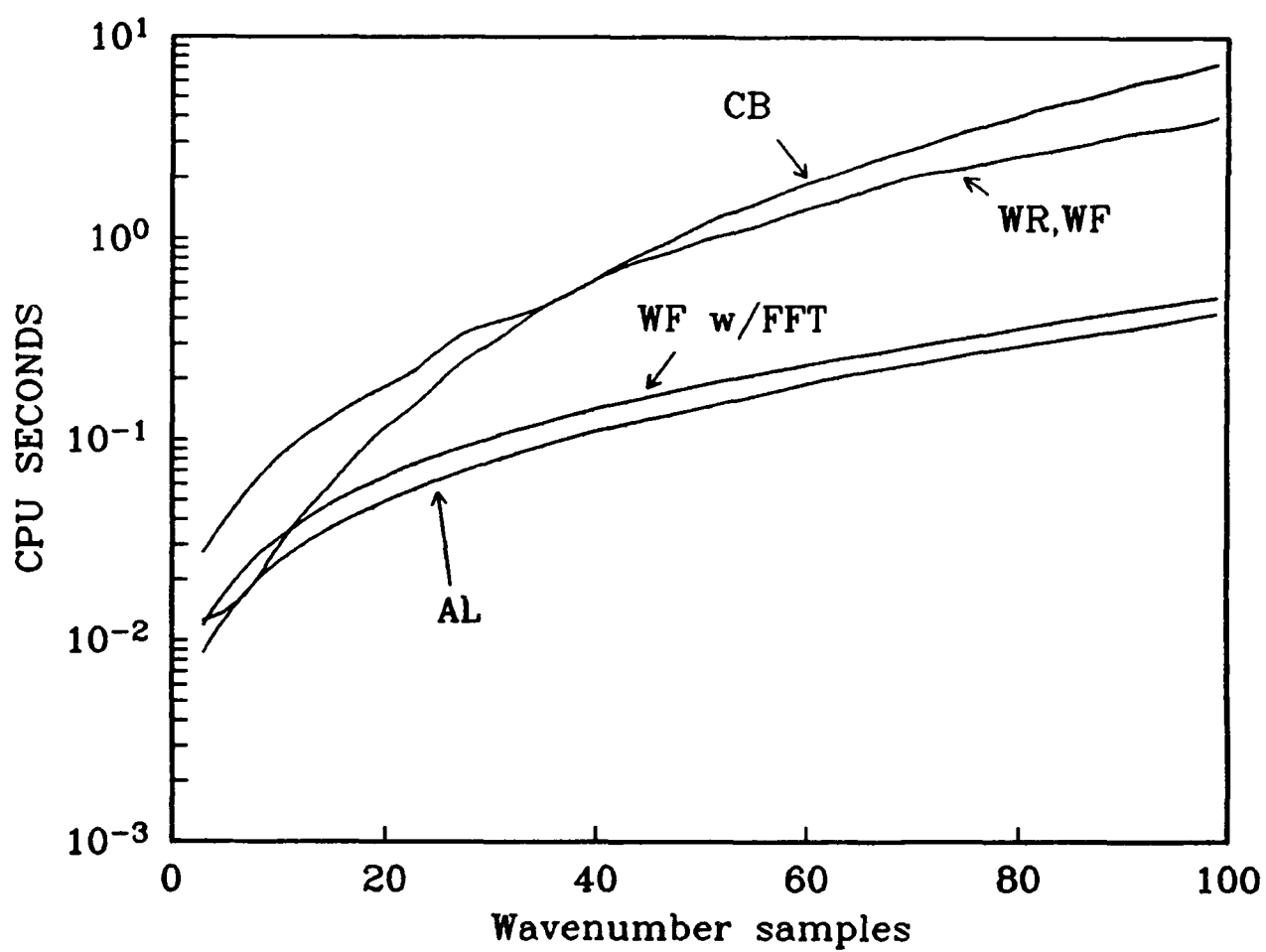


Figure 8

APPENDIX I

To invoke the normalization multiply equations 12 and 13 as follow:

$$W r = W Q^+ \alpha$$

$$[W]^{-1} b = [W]^{-1} Q^- \alpha$$

where

$$W_{mn} = \begin{cases} e^{-i\gamma_n h} & n = m \\ 0 & n \neq m \end{cases}$$

Then solve the new system, which has improved stability:

$$r' = Q^{+'} \alpha$$

$$b' = Q^{-'} \alpha$$

$$r' = Q^{+'} [Q^{-'}]^{-1} b'$$

Converting to the original basis functions,

$$r = W Q^{+'} [Q^{-'}]^{-1} W a.$$

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